ABSTRACT
              Four recommendations for research and educational
policy to achieve culturally responsive education are made and
discussed: (1) because children differ in sensory modality strength,
and the learning of all children in bilingual-bicultural education
schools may be depressed in overly verbal environments, all such
schools should plan more multisensory instruction; (2) differences in
field dependence-independence should be researched; (3) because
classroom participation is an indicator of children's engagement and
thereby of their learning, and also a valuable learning activity in
itself in BBE programs, monitoring of that participation and
subsequent planning for change where needed should become a part of
formative evaluation procedures in all BBE schools. In a few
communities, field research projects of a larger range should be
supported, projects in which an ethnographer works with staff and
community members on a specific diagnosis of incompatibilities
between the interactional styles of community and school, and
suggests directions for change and then helps to monitor the results;
(4) all school systems should bring the invisible culture of the
community into the school through parent participation, hiring and
promotion of minority group personnel, and inservice training for the
school staff. That inservice training should include both
experiential and formal education components along the lines
described in the Master Plan for San Francisco. (Author/CLK)

Culturally Responsive Education:
A Response to LAU Remedies II

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According to Section II of the "Task force findings specifying remedies available for eliminating past educational practices ruled unlawful under Lau v. Nichols" (Office of Civil Rights, 1975; hereafter referred to as "Remedies"):

> The second part of a plan must describe the diagnostic/
> prescriptive measures to be used to identify the nature
> and extent of each student's educational needs and then
> prescribe an educational program utilizing the most
> effective teaching style to satisfy the diagnosed educa-
> tional needs. The determination of which teaching
> style(s) are to be used should be based on a careful
> review of both the cognitive and affective domains
> and should include an assessment of the responsiveness
> of students to different types of cognitive learning
> styles and incentive motivational styles - E.g., com-
> petitive vs. cooperative learning patterns...

Complying with this section of the Remedies requires a decision about what, in addition to language, must be changed in creating Bilingual/ Bicultural Education (BBE). The goal is education that will be more responsive to cultural differences among children. Specifically, school systems are asked to consider cognitive and affective aspects of how different children learn so that appropriate teaching styles and learning environments can be provided that will maximize their educational achieve- ment. Whatever the legal purposes that prompted this OCR document, it can be used more broadly to focus attention on issues fundamental to improved education for all children. In rejecting the District Court's previous approval of the Cardenas Plan for Denver, based on a "theory of incompatibilities" between the characteristics of minority children and

the characteristics of typical instructional programs (J. Cardenas, 1974),

the Court of Appeals stated:

> The clear implication of arguments in support of the
> courts' adoption of the Cardenas Plan is that minority
> students are entitled under the fourteenth amendment
> to an educational experience tailored to their unique
> cultural and developmental needs. Although enlightened
> educational theory may well demand as much, the Con-
> stitution does not (Center for Law and Education, 1975,
> p. 55).

While legal arguments continue about what the constitution demands, we

address ourselves to issues of "enlightened educational theory".

The assertion in the Remedies that how we teach should be adapted

to how children learn is supported by fundamental concepts in anthropology

and psychology. In anthropology, the concept of culture includes not

only language and a catalogue of visible objects and events but also the

tacit knowledge that the members of any community share:

> Schools have long been aware of cultural differences,
> and in recent years have attempted to address them, rather
> than punish them. Too often the differences of which the
> school is aware or which even the community is aware are
> only the most visible, 'high' culture symbols and the
> most stereotyped conventions. What may be slighted is
> the 'invisible' culture (to use Philips' 1974 title),
> the culture of everyday etiquette and interaction, and its
> expression of rights and duties. Classrooms may be re-
> spectful of religious belief and national custom, yet
> profane an implicit ceremonial order having to do with
> relations among persons. One can honor cultural pride
> on the walls of a room yet inhibit learning within
> them (Hymes, 1976, p. 8).

In psychology, the concept of intelligence "postulates diverse

mental abilities and proposes that intelligent behavior can be manifested

in a wide variety of forms, with each individual displaying certain

areas of intellectual strength and other forms of intellectual weakness"

(Stodolsky & Lesser, 1967, p. 562). In their widely cited article,

Stodolsky and Lesser (1967) report research on cultural differences in patterns of mental abilities among first grade children and hold out a vision of eventually being able to maximize children's learning by matching instructional practice to such differences.

How far have we come toward a realization of that vision? Expansion of this section of the LAU Remedies into more detailed recommendations should ideally rest on the following knowledge:

1. That we know how to describe accurately how different individual children learn, because

    a. There is valid research data that children from identifiable cultural groups overwhelmingly exhibit certain learning styles, or

    b. We know how to make valid individual diagnoses of individual children in each classroom.

2. Having that information on children, by group or by individual, we know how to vary how we teach in relevant ways. That is,

    a. We have a repertoire of teaching styles, and

    b. We have research evidence that a match between characteristics of children and characteristics of teaching environments will significantly increase their achievement.

Educational research on these issues is called "aptitude-treatment interaction" (ATI). During the past decade, considerable research has been done in this area, and reviews of the field are available (Berliner & Cahen, 1973; Tobias, 1976). In general, Tobias speaks for the field: "The bulk of the work remains to be done, and the viability of the ATI construct for the illumination of our understanding of instructional

events, as well as for advancing practice to the point where instructional prescriptions can be made, is still to be demonstrated" (1976, p. 63).

This paper reviews selected topics in this research in more detail, first in cognitive style and then in what I have termed "interactional style". In both domains, discussion is limited to dimensions of differences among children where:

> 1. Evidence exists that individual differences are
> correlated with membership in particular cultural
> groups; and
>
> 2. Suggestions have been made for how instruction
> might be adapted to these differences.

Where evaluation data is available on the effects of adaptations on educational achievement, it is presented. Because the paper is focused on implications for formal, school-based education, environmental antecedents of the cultural differences are not discussed. The paper makes suggestions for how school systems may comply with the Remedies, and create more culturally responsive education in the present state of our knowledge.

At the outset, it is important to keep in mind a distinction between universal and particular goals of education. Universal goals are those we expect all children to achieve and we demand that all schools teach. Literacy and mathematical competence are certainly such universal goals, whatever else one might want to include. Particular goals, by contrast, are both more optional and more varied - skilled performance in sports or the arts, for example. This discussion of LAU Remedies II will be limited to its application to universal goals where "the implication of recognizing individual [and cultural] differences is that different instructional strategies must be found which will optimally promote each child's achievement of basic universal skills" (Lesser, 1971, p. 33). Any complete

educational program should also provide rich options for instruction

toward more particular and optional goals, but they will not be considered

further here.

The paper does not discuss diagnostic/prescriptive measures them-

selves. But it should be noted that certain aspects of some of the manage-

ment systems for diagnosing and prescribing children's educational needs,

for instance in reading and mathematics, may make culturally responsive

education more difficult. In particular, thoughtful attention should

be given to these aspects of whatever system is used:

> 1. The amount and frequency of testing required;
>
> 2. The extent to which instruction is excessively
>
> individualized, in the literal sense of each child
>
> working alone.
>
> 3. Cultural bias, or at best cultural meaninglessness,
>
> in the materials themselves, especially if they have been
>
> produced for a large-scale use over a wide geographical
>
> area.

Cultural Differences in Cognitive Style

The term "cognitive style" is used by psychologists to refer

to "individual variation in modes of perceiving, remembering, and thinking,

or as distinctive ways of apprehending, storing, transforming, and utilizing

information" (Kogan, 1971, p. 244). There is no theoretically based set

of ways of describing such variations. There is only a list of labels

for variations that psychologists have studied. One such variation is

the contrast in sensory modalities between visual and auditory strength

that may underlie the findings reported by Stodolsky and Lesser above.

Kogan (1971) lists nine other cognitive style dimensions:

> field independence vs. field dependence
> scanning - a measure of how attention is focused
> breadth of categorizing
> conceptualizing styles - e.g. analytic vs. thematic
>   categories
> cognitive complexity vs. simplicity
> reflectiveness vs. impulsivity
> leveling vs. sharpening - a measure of assimilation
>   in memory
> constricted vs. flexible control - susceptibility
>   to distraction
> tolerance for incongruous or unrealistic experience

Of these nine dimensions, field dependence/independence is the most thoroughly researched. To our knowledge, differences in sensory modality strength and in field dependence are the only two dimensions of cognitive style on which evidence of cultural differences have so far been found. In these two areas, individual differences in cognitive styles do seem to be correlated with membership in particular cultural groups. In addition, suggestions have been made for how instruction might be adapted to these differences, and in a few cases evaluation data on attempted adaptations are available. The two dimensions will be discussed further in turn.

Visual vs. Auditory Sensory Modality Strength

Many teachers observe informally that some children seem to learn more through their eyes while other children learn more through their ears. My own experience is probably typical. In 1974-75 I taught a combined first-second-third grade in San Diego. Two of the six first graders were Mexican-American boys who both did very well in beginning reading but seemed to learn in strikingly different ways. Rafael seemed

to learn more through his eyes, remembering with remarkable accuracy
how a word looked and where he had seen it. In the game of Concentration --
where pairs of word cards are scattered face down on the table and players
take turns trying to find the pairs -- Rafael could beat anyone in the
class, child or adult. Alberto, on the other hand, although an exceptional
artist, was not particularly good at Concentration. But he had a
much easier time attending to the sounds that words are made of, and
wrote daily stories with invented spelling to match his Spanish accent -
e.g. An tis coner is drragn (In this corner is dragon.) (See Cazden,
1976 for two of Alberto's pictures and accompanying captions.)

Beyond such informal observations, there is considerable research
evidence, both experimental and ethnographic, for cultural differences
in sensory modality strength. "Strength" refers to some combination
of ability and preference which are often hard to separate. Stodolsky
and Lesser (1967) gave four "mental ability tests" to middle- and
lower-class children from four cultural groups in New York City (Chinese,
Jewish, Negro and Puerto Rican) and three groups in a replication study
in Boston (Chinese, Irish and Negro). On space conceptualization, a
visual strength, the Chinese ranked first, and this superiority found
first in New York was completely replicated in Boston. Social class
differences within each group affected absolute scores but not the
overall pattern, and differences among the groups were greater among
lower class children than among middle class children.

Cazden and John (1971) report extensive observations on the
visual strengths of Native American children and from many tribes, and
Philips (1974, pp. 272-284) adds observations from the Warm Springs

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Reservation in Oregon. Kleinfeld (1973) reviews comparable evidence

for the same sensory modality strength, which she calls 'figural',

in Alaskan Eskimos.

Most recently, John-Steiner and Osterreich (1975) report visual

strengths in a study of learning styles among Pueblo children. They

told a story to Pueblo and non-Pueblo primary grade children and then

asked the children to both retell the story and draw a picture for it.

Story retellings were analyzed on such measures as total number of

phrases and percent of those phrases derived from text alone (as opposed

to pictures); the drawings were rated on two seven-point scales of

artistic and cognitive performance. Comparing the verbal and visual

scores of each cultural group, the authors conclude that "verbal ex-

pression takes second place to visual expression for the Pueblo groups,

and that the opposite is true for the non-Indian groups" (p. 121).

Some of the children were tested in English; others in Keres or Tano

or both. The language retelling affected the absolute verbal scores

but not the verbal-visual comparisons. Within the Pueblo group, the

"highest drawing scores in this study were obtained by Keresan-speaking

children" (p. 170). The authors suggest two reasons for this superiority.

All the Pueblo children live in an artistically rich visual environment

of pottery, jewelry, dances and religious ceremonies. But, in addition,

the Keresan-speaking children, alone among all the groups, attend school

in their second, weaker language (English) and thus may "rely heavily

upon graphic skills as a significant channel of communication and

representation" (p. 171).

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John Steiner and Osterreich also gave an "imagery" test to Indian and non-Indian adults. Navajo, Crow and non-Indian men and women enrolled in teacher training programs were asked to write down the images that 8 words such as house brought to mind. Images were classified as visual ("beige-covered house, post fence surrounding it...") or verbal ("a house is a shelter full of love") or both. Crow Indians gave the most visual responses (70%), Navajos next (50%) and non-Indians least (33%).

It is easy to imagine how relative visual strength could be exploited in instruction in reading or mathematics, but the evaluation of controlled experiments so far presents a mixed picture. Bissell, White and Zivin (1971) review two studies in which individual children's modality strength was matched with types of reading instruction. Modality strength was assessed by tests of visual discrimination of letter combinations and auditory discrimination of letters sounds. The relationship between the children's relative scores and sight vs. phonic method of instruction was then analyzed. The results are inconclusive: one study reports that matching helped and the other reports it did not. Whether the weakness is in the assessment of individual differences or instructional design is unclear.

Lesser reports similar attempts to match instruction in mathematics to modality strength. Certain mathematical concepts can be portrayed either by visual means such as graphs or Venn diagrams, or by equivalent words or numerical symbols. Lesser concludes from the few studies to date that "This research is clearer about the destructive effects of mismatching than it is about the constructive effects of matching... The inhibiting effects of mismatching seem well documented; the rational

bases for arranging uniformly successful matches remain to be clarified"
(1971, p. 541-2).

It is likely that the educational effects of differences in
sensory modality strengths are most significant in the early school
years. Whereas adults usually can readily transmit information learned
in one modality to the other modalities, children's sensory modalities
are not as highly coordinated (Bissell, White & Zivlin, 1971, p. 149).
Because of the inconclusive results from attempts at an instructional match,
and the dangers of mismatching, our best strategy at the present time
seems to be a deliberately multi-sensory curriculum. A detailed example
of multi-sensory teaching of the mathematical concept of set (Bissell,
White and Zivin, 1971) is given in Appendix I of this paper.

As Bissell, White and Zivin point out, "By teaching the concept
of a set or any other concept with a multisensory approach, one is not
only more likely to reach all the children in a class but also more likely
to make each child's learning experience a richer thing" (1971, p. 150).
Their recommendation applies to all children, but it applies with greatest
force to the children to whom LAU Remedies apply. Schools in general
rely too heavily on verbal presentations by teachers and on demands to
children for verbal expression of what they have learned. But this
overreliance on words for the representation and communication of infor-
mation is especially unfortunate in classrooms where the ability of children
to comprehend or produce the language of instruction is in question, or
where children feel conflicts and pressures about their language use.
Our first recommendation, therefore, is that enforcement of LAU Remedies
should include attention to rich and diverse multisensory modes of
instruction.

Field Dependence vs. Field Independence

Because "the field independence-dependence dimension is un-
questionably the most widely known and thoroughly researched" (Kogan,
                                                              relative
1971, p. 247), and because there is some evidence that/field dependence
is a characteristic of at least some Mexican-American children, the
largest single group to whom LAU Remedies apply, it is important to
consider this research in some detail.

Research on the dimension of cognitive style called field
dependence-field independence began in the late 1950's when Witkin
conducted a series of studies investigating individuals' ability to
locate their bodies vertically in space when seated in an experimental
room that was tilted at an angle (Body Adjustment Test or BAT). Some
people were more influenced by the position of the room and located
themselves 'vertically' along the axis of the room's inclination.
Witkin termed this greater reliance on the surrounding context as
field dependency (FD). Other people relied on bodily cues more than
visual cues to determine 'vertically' and were thus less influenced by
the position of the room. They were labeled field independent (FI),
This work prompted further studies investigating aspects of perception
other than bodily awareness. Tests include the now well-known Embedded
Figures Test (EFT) which requires subjects to find a simple design
within a more complex one, and the Rod and Frame Test (RFT) which
requires subjects to adjust a rod to a position perceived as vertical
within a square frame that is tilted, much like the tilted room task.
From these three tests, it is possible to obtain quantitative measures
of the extent to which an individual's perception is influenced by, or

more sensitive to, the surrounding field.

[...] first decade's research, Witkin et al (1962) report

[...] 's are reliably self-consisten [...] their performance

[...] tests; females are more field dependent than males; and

a person's tendency to be either field dependent or independent remains

stable over a period of years, although there is also a developmental

trend toward field-independence. That is, an individual's score becomes

more field independent with age, but the position relative to others

on the FD-FI continuum remains substantially the same.

Around th[...] of scores on these three perceptual tests,

researchers have attempted to describe broader personality characteristics

of individuals with more FD or FI cognitive styles. In 1954, Witkin

himself co-authored a book entitled Personality through Perception,

describing research indicating that FD individuals make more use of

social frames of reference than do FI individuals. Other research on

personality correlates (reviewed by Witkin & Goodenough, 1976) finds

that FD individuals tend to reach agreement more easily in a dilemma

where the information given them is ambiguous; are more attentive to

social cues, (e.g. in a puzzle task, FD children glance more often at

the experimenter's face while FI children glance more often at the

experimenter's puzzle); prefer topics with social content and situations

involving social interaction more than FI people.

This research has been welcomed by Witkin as showing that the FD-FI

dimension of cognitive style pervades many aspects of behavior. In his

1975 review/ Witkin/ (in press), et al says that "cognitive styles cut across the boundaries

traditionally used in compartmentalizing the human psyche and help restore

it to its proper status as a wholistic entity". In evaluating

this claim, it is important to remember that data relating personality and social behavior to perceptual and intellectual functioning is correlational data. Even when the correlation is statistically significant, it is never perfect, or even close to perfect. Any sample of people will include FD individuals who score high on social characteristics measured in the particular study as well as FD individuals who score low.

Besides the dangers of invalidly stereotyping perceptual and social behavior under one FD or FI label, application of the labels themselves represents a misconstrual of what the test scores signify. Throughout the research literature, people are classified into two groups on the basis of their tendency to use one mode of functioning more than the other on the perceptual tests. It must be remembered that the scores form a continuum from very low to very high. Although we might well agree that the scores at the far ends of the continuum may be clear examples of one or the other cognitive style, we must question the accuracy of these labels for individuals (or, more accurately, for scores) in the middle ranges of the continuum. In studies where two groups of subjects are contrasted on sex, social class or ethnicity, the tendency to label one group as field dependent and the other as field independent is even more suspect. The scores for one group can only be considered more field dependent or more field independent in relation to the scores of the other group; there is no absolute measure of field dependency or independency.

Witkin has himself warned against the danger of stereotyping. In his 1974 book, he stressed the importance of considering individuals as

unique, saying that:

>...although to characterize a person as more
>or less differentiated is to say a great deal
>about him, it is far from a sufficient account...
>It is necessary to add a whole series of uniquely
>individual qualifications to the statement (Witkin,
>1974, p. 382).

Even more strongly, in 1975 he later stated:

>Because scores from any test of field dependence-
>independence form a continuous distribution, these
>labels reflect a tendency in varying degrees of
>strength, toward one mode of perception or the
>other...There is no implication that there exist
>two distinct types of human beings (Witkin et al, in
>press.

Despite these cautions, the danger continues to exist that each new study

will strengthen the stereotypes with the addition of another distinction

between "two types of people."

The dangers of stereotyping become compounded by tendencies to

consider FI cognitive style inherently better. Ramírez and Castañeda

(1974, p. 73) criticize Witkin for placing a higher value on FI than on

FD style. This criticism applies to Witkin's 1962 book in which he

did stress the positive aspects of field independence, but those views

have since been changed (e.g. in his 1975 review). The original higher

valuation of an FI style probably resulted from data which showed a

developmental trend toward field-independence and thus provided justi-

fication for the widespread view that FI is a more mature and adaptive

mode of functioning. The changed valuation comes from the realization

that the perceptual tests rank individuals on their degree of articulation

and differentiation in apprehending the physical world, while subsequent

research on personality correlates can be interpreted as showing greater

development of social sensitivity and social skills by relatively more

FD individuals. Witkin et al's review (in press) concludes:

> These characteristics add up to a set of social
> skills which are less evident in field-independent
> people. On the other hand, field independent
> people give evidence of greater skill in cognitive
> analyses and structuring than field dependent
> people. The cluster of characteristics found
> in field-dependent people and the cluster found
> in field-independent people each has components
> which are helpful in dealing with particular
> situations. The field-dependent and field-in-
> dependent cognitive styles are thus not inherently
> good or bad. Their value can only be judged with
> reference to their adaptiveness in particular life
> circumstances.

The characterization of Mexican-American children as more field-dependent than Anglo children rests on two studies. Ramírez and Price-Williams (1974) compared the scores on a portable Rod and Frame Test of fourth grade children in Houston, Texas from three cultural groups: Mexican-American children who were Spanish-English bilinguals, Black children in bilingual French-English families from Louisiana, and Anglo children. Scores of both the Mexican-American and Black children were more field dependent than the Anglo children. More specifically, degrees of error in their estimation of verticality were about twice as great. There were smaller but still statistically significant sex differences (girls more field dependent than boys), and no differences in social class within each cultural group. In a larger comparison in Riverside, California by Caravan (reported by Ramírez and Castañeda (1974, p. 78), Mexican-American children in grades K-6 were significantly more field dependent in the Man-in-the-Box test (an instrument similar to the portable Rod and Frame Test).

Ramírez, Castañeda and Herold (1974) report considerable variability on the FD-FI dimension among Mexican-American children, and

relate that variability to different socialization practices in

traditional, dualistic and atraditional communities. Although scores

for children in even the atraditional community are more FD than Anglo

children, the authors wisely suggest that "implementation of experimental

model programs for Mexican-Americans in settings different from those

in which they were originally developed must be carried out with great

caution" (p 431).

Research on the educational implications of the FD-FI dimension

is summarized by Kogan as of 1971:

> Witkin's, analytical-global dimension would appear
> to be ideally suited for research on the interaction
> between variables of cognitive style and instructional
> treatment. Both ends of Witkin's dimension have
> adaptive properties, though of a distinctly different
> kind, and it is feasible that education programs could
> be devised to profit each of the polar types. Unfor-
> tunately, no work of this sort has as yet been carried
> out (p. 253).

In his review of more recent studies of the educational implications

of the FD-FI dimension, Witkin/ et al (in press) categorize them according to three

questions: how students learn, how teachers teach, and how students and

teachers interact. Although these studies deal with education, few take

place in regular classrooms.

Studies on student learning have looked at both the cognitive and

social aspects of cognitive style. For example, FD students are better

able to learn and remember social content and are more affected by social

reinforcement and verbal criticism. In concept-attainment tasks, FI

students use a more spectator approach, trying to remember the relevant

attributes until the irrelevant ones become obvious.

Investigations of the styles used by teachers have focused mainly

on social aspects of the FD-FI dimension. They suggest that teachers of

different cognitive styles create different learning environments by

preferring contrasting teaching techniques. For instance, FD teachers seem to prefer classroom discussions to lecturing since it allows more interpersonal interaction; they share more responsibility for learning with their students; and they tend to emphasize the social aspects of curriculum content. FI teachers, by contrast, tend to prefer lecturing, assume more of the responsibility for the teaching-learning situation, and emphasize the more cognitive aspects of curriculum content. Because these studies have been conducted in simulated teaching situations in the laboratory, it cannot be assumed that these differences are representative of actual classroom performance. In fact, two studies conducted in actual classrooms found no relation between teaching variables and the teacher's cognitive style.

Two studies of teacher-student relationships found that students and teachers matched on cognitive style tend to regard each other more positively (in answers to questionnaires) than did students and teachers who were not so matched, and FI and FD teachers assigned higher grades (prior to the final exam) to their FI and FD students respectively.

While these findings are of interest, they do not address the most important question: does matching cognitive style of teachers and students result not only in greater interpersonal attraction but also in improved student academic achievement, especially in relation to some universal goal of education? There is no evidence in answer to this question. Witkin includes a brief description of a study of his own in which students of FD and FI teachers did not differ significantly in their test scores at the end of an experimental "minicourse". Although this result does not address the central question, it does

suggest that when students are grouped heterogeneously by cognitive

style, the cognitive style of the teacher does not affect average

group achievement. The data as presented do not give information on

the students' cognitive styles, and it would be of interest to know

whether the achievement of individual students who mat hed their

teacher in cognitive _yl~ w s signi⁻icantl, higher than the achieve-

ment of students who did not.

Some suggestions for educational practices that should enhance

learning for FD children are simply suggestions for better education in

general - e.g., providing more structure in curriculum tasks, and creating

more learning situations which allow for interpersonal interaction. They

would be generally considered aspects of good teaching. More specific

and prescriptive recommendations go beyond the present state of our

knowledge. Witkin / ~~et al (in press)~~ concludes **their** review of available information

with extreme caution:

> The first and foremost question is whether matching for
> cognitive style makes for better student learning, and
> not alone for the greater interpersonal attraction that
> has been demonstrated to this point. On the one hand,
> it is possible to see ways in whicn teacher-student
> match may have a positive learning outcome. For example,
> it may well be that the greater interpersonal attraction
> between teachers and students matched in cognitive style
> creates a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning...On
> the other hand, it is equally possible to conceive of
> negative consequences of matching. As one example, while
> the interpersonal effects of the discussion approach used
> by relatively field-dependent teachers may be helpful to
> learning by field-dependent students, that very approach
> at the same time minimizes structure from the teacher
> which field-dependent students seem to need for most
> effective learning...The possibilities that have been
> listed reflect the complexity of the relation between
> cognitive style match-mismatch and student achievement
> and they provide a strong note of caution against
> deciding about the desirability of matching before
> a great deal more is known about the consequences of
> matching for student learning. An added note of caution

is suggested by the obvious practical problems
likely to be encountered in attempting to create
classes of students homogeneous in cognitive style
and matched in style with their teacher (in press).

Not included in Witkin's review is Ramírez and Castaneda's important

proposal for "bicognitive development and educational policy":

Our research on bicultural children led us to the discovery
that children who could cope effectively with the demands
of two cultures were those children who exhibited some
capacity to be able to perform within both field-sensitive
and field-independent cognitive styles. This finding led
us to posit a concept of bicognition or bicognitive
development...The goal that children become more ver-
satile and adaptable to the increasingly complex demands
of life in a postindustrial society may be reached by
helping them develop the ability to switch cognitive
styles - to be "cognitive switch-hitters" - or to draw
upon both styles at any given time (1974, p. 153-4).

In implementing this proposal, the cognitive style of each child is

assessed through several Child Behavior Observation Instruments designed

by the authors. Students are grouped within each classroom according

to their cognitive profile: into either an extreme FI group, a middle

group, or an extreme F-Sensitive (i.e. FD) group. In addition, the

preferred teaching style of each teacher is assessed by means of 2 Teaching

Strategies Observation Instruments. Teachers then are trained in the

unfamiliar teaching style so that they will be proficient in using both

styles in the classroom. They also learn to recognize characteristics

of each cognitive style in children. Children begin in one group matched

to their cognitive style, and move.to another group when the teacher

decides they are ready, moving from one extreme group, to the middle

group, and finally to the opposite extreme group. Ramírez and Castañeda

suggest that as both teachers and students become more flexible in their

use of both styles, groupings may become less rigidly defined. It is not

clear what proportion of each school day children would spend in these

areas. Ramírez and Castañeda say their approach is "most effective

in implementing the cognitive styles component of culturally democratic

educational environments and for encouraging development of bicognition

in children" (p. 146) but no actual evaluation data is presented. Our

second recommendation, therefore, is that the program developed by

Ramírez and Castañeda, and the many other research ideas in Ramirez

(1975), should be tried and evaluated, but until we have more research

evidence it does not seem advisable to make specific recommendations for

educational policy on this dimension of cognitive style.

Cultural Differences in Interactional Style

Cultural differences exist not only in cognitive information

processing habits, but also in the interactional contexts in which people

prefer to learn and to demonstrate what they have learned in some kind

of performance. These latter differences we call "interactional style."

The label can include some of the social correlates of the FD style

discussed above. It includes different reactions to cooperative vs.

competitive situations mentioned in the Remedies. And it includes

considerable ethnographic evidence on childrens' responses to different

interaction situations in school and in their home community.

One experimental study (Kagan & Madsen, 1971) has supplemented

ethnographic observations that rural Mexican and Mexican-American children

are more cooperative and less competitive than Anglo children. Anglo and

Mexican-American children 4-5 and 7-9 years old in Los Angeles and Mexican

children 7-9 years old in Baja, California were taught to play a game in

which only cooperative play allowed pairs of players to win a toy reward.

All the younger children were overwhelmingly cooperative. But among the older children, Mexican children were by far the most effective cooperators, Anglo children least cooperative, and the Mexican-American children in the middle. For example, in frequencies of trials labeled "completely cooperative", Mexican children had 63%, Mexican-American children had 29% and Anglo children only 10%.

The most detailed ethnographic research on the discontinuities that children from minority cultures face in public school classrooms has been done by Philips (1972, 1974) on the Warm Springs Reservation in Oregon. In the public school classrooms on the Warm Springs reservation, teachers use four participant structures:

> In the first type of participant structure the teacher interacts with all of the students...And it is always the teacher who determines whether she talks to one or to all, receives responses individually or in chorus, and voluntarily or without choice. In a second type of participant structure, the teacher interacts with only some of the students in the class at once, as in reading groups. In such contexts, participation is usually mandatory, and each student is expected to participate or perform verbally, for the main purpose of such smaller groups is to provide the teacher with the opportunity to assess the knowledge acquired by each individual student...

> A third participant structure consists of all students working independently at their desks, but with the teacher explicitly available for student-initiated verbal interaction, in which the child indicates he wants to communicate with the teacher by raising his hand, or by approaching the teacher at her desk. In either case, the interaction between student and teacher is not witnessed by the other students in that they do not hear what is said.

> A fourth participant structure, and one which occurs infrequently in the upper primary grades, and rarely, if ever, in the lower grades, consists of the students being divided into small groups, which they run themselves though always with the distant supervision of the teacher, and usually for the purpose of so-called "group projects." (Philips, 1974, pp. 377-378).

By contrast with non-Indian children, Philips found the Indian
children reluctant to participate in the first two structures, large
group and small group recitations, which were the most frequent in
the classrooms, but more talkative than non-Indian children in the
last two contexts of student-initiated talk with the teacher and student-
led group projects.

Philips explains these cultural differences as caused by socio-
linguistic interference between participant structures in the school
and in the children's home and community. In their homes, Indian
children learn by a combination of "observation, which of course in-
cludes listening; supervised participation; and private self-initiated
self-testing."

> In summary, the Indian social activities to which
> children are early exposed outside the home generally
> have the following properties: 1) They are community-wide,
> in the sense that they are open to all Warm Springs Indians;
> 2) there is no single individual directing and controlling
> all activity, and to the extent that there are "leaders,"
> their leadership is based on the choice to follow which is
> made by each person; 3) participation in some form is
> accessible to everyone who attends. No one need be ex-
> clusively an observer or audience, and there is consequently
> no sharp distinction between audience and performer. And
> each individual chooses for himself the degree of his
> participation during the activity...
>
> This process of Indian acquisition of competence may help
> to explain, in part, Indian children's reluctance to speak
> in front of their classmates. In the classroom, the
> process of acquisition of knowledge and demonstration of
> knowledge are collapsed into the simple act of answering
> questions or reciting when called upon to do so by the
> teicher, particularly in the lower grades (Philips, 1972,
> pp. 387-8 and 390).

Other ethnographic reports suggest that the difficulties felt by
the Warm Springs children in teacher-dominated recitations are felt by

other minority group children as well. Boggs (1972) reports that
Hawaiian children participate volubly in choral responses, and individually
volunteer information to teachers when they sense her receptivity, but
become silent if called on by name. Dumont (1972) contrasts two
Cherokee classrooms - one in which children are silent and one in
which children talk excitedly and productively about all their learning
tasks. In the silent classroom, teacher-dominated recitations fail.
In the classroom where children are engaged, they have choices of
when and how to participate, and small group projects apart from
teacher domination are encouraged.

Combined, these observations suggest that children from several
minority groups are less apt to perform on demand when asked a question
individually in a large group, and more apt to participate actively
and verbally in group projects and in situations where they can volunteer.
In Philips terms, there is an incompatibility between the children's
communicative competence and what is entailed in "getting the floor" in
most classrooms".

> More accurate differentiation among the interactional
> styles of children in various cultural groups must wait
> "closer examination of the extent to which [they] diffe. and/or
> are the same in their classroom behavior, of the ways in which
> their behavior is or is not in some way related to different
> and or similar experiences outside the classroom, and of
> the extent to which they are as different from one another
> as all of them are from the white middle class"(Philips,
> 1974, p. 122).

Even in a more multisensory curriculum, verbal participation in
classrooms is important for all children as one indicator of engagement
as well as one kind of demonstration to the teacher of what has been
learned. For bilingual children, verbal participation in either lan-
guage is further important as a learning activity in itself. Class-

room environments should be designed to maximize that participation
on educationally relevant topics. These generalizations about cul-
tural differences in interactional style also underlie our concern,
expressed in the introduction, about the excessive amount of testing
and degree of individualization in some management systems for diagnos-
ing and prescribing children's educational needs.

Consideration of such cultural differences in interactional
styles requires that the concept of diagnosis and prescription be
applied not only to children but to classroom learning environments
themselves. Unfortunately, we do not yet have descriptive studies of
classroom dynamics in BBE programs, much less have evaluation reports
of deliberate attempts to change participant structures to maximize
children's engagement and thereby their learning. Hopefully, some
of the research projects funded by NIE's culticultural/bilingual
division (NIE, 1976) will include such work. Coburn (1975), for
example, promises an important attempt to incorporate ideas on the
social context of speech from Philips' research into the Teachers
Manual which will accompany reading and language arts materials created
in and for Indian communities in the Pacific Northwest.

Both the problem of cultural differences in interactional styles
and a potential solution are highlighted by Report V of the Mexican
American Education Study of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1972;
also Jackson & Cosca, 1974) which reports observations of teacher-student
interaction in 494 elementary and secondary school classrooms (not BBE
programs) in California, New Mexico, and Texas. The report is a damning
document:

> Teachers praised or encouraged Anglos 35% more than
> they did Chicanos, accepted or used Anglo's ideas
> 40% more than they did those of Chicanos, and
> directed 21% more questions to Anglos than to
> Chicanos. Thus, Chicanos in the Southwest receive
> substantially less of those types of teacher be-
> havior presently known to be most strongly related
> to gains in student achievement (Jackson & Cosca,
> 1974, p. 227).

And this in classrooms which had been selected from only those schools

with no previous record of civil rights violations or investigations,

and in which teachers were aware that an observer from a federal

civil rights agency was present. Clearly this situation, which is

probably all too typical of schools with minority group children,

must be changed, and it is unlikely in view of all the above re-

search that simply trying to change teachers' reinforcement patterns

will suffice. In the conclusion of her study of the Warm Springs

children, Philips comments on this Commission on Civil Rights report:

> The orientation of the Commission Report is
> such that cultural differences of the sort
> considered [here] are not dealt with in at-
> tempting to account for the disparities
> discussed. The impression is given that the
> disparities are due to what is typically
> referred to as discrimination. But even
> where teachers are well-intentioned, the
> results are similar, because the minority
> students' efforts to communicate are often
> incomprehensible to the teacher and cannot be
> assimilated into the framework within which
> she operates. The teacher, then, must be
> seen as uncomprehending, just as the students
> are. And it is primarily by virtue of her
> position and her authority that the students
> and not the teacher come to be defined as
> the ones who do not understand (1974, p. 311-12).

We agree that the teachers in these SW classrooms are not discriminatory

in intent; but their teaching style becomes discriminatory in effect.

Since children's degree of participation is so obvious to
teacher and observer alike, no one has to wait for formal research
results before attempting change. Monitoring cultural as well as
individual differences in children's participation should be a con-
tinuous part of the formative evaluation component of any BBE program.
Where participation is low, teachers and supporting personnel (both
professional and community) must diagnose the classroom learning en-
vironment (not the children), try alternative participant structures
in the light of the general research reviewed above and then monitor
the results. This is part of what Hymes (1976) means by "ethnographic
monitoring," and there is probably no more powerful way to create
culturally responsive education.

In a simple and general way, such monitoring can and should
be done in any school system right now. A more complex version,
in which a trained ethnographer studies interaction patterns in a
particular community and then works with the school staff and advisory
community group in planning change, should be supported as field
research projects in a few sites. See Sherzer (1975) for extensive
discussion of the need for such research. There are to-date no
examples of situations in which information like Kagan and Madsen's
on cooperation, or Philips' on participant structures, is collected
and then fed back in to the design of school learning environments
in that particular community.

Our third recommendation includes both short and long range
efforts to change interaction patterns in BBE classrooms to maximize
children's engagement and thereby their learning: effective immediately,
classroom monitoring; in the long range, community-specific ethnographic

field research and application.

Staff Selection and Training

The most important factor in achieving culturally responsive
education is the school staff. They create the learning environments
in which children succeed or fail. Because "culture" is so largely
a matter of implicit knowledge, it is not sufficient for Anglo teachers
to take formal courses on non-Anglo language and culture. The "Proposed
Approach to Implement Bilingual Programs" prepared by the National
Puerto Rican Development and Training Institute (n.d.) is very clear
on this point. Accepting the importance of ethnic foods, festivals
and courses on cultural history, they insist:

> But this is a limited interpretation of the concept
> of culture. What seems to be forgotten is that
> culture is acquired by direct, frequent, varied
> participation and experience in all aspects of the
> life of a group of people. A very large part of
> this acquisition occurs outside of the learner's
> awareness. It follows that culture in this deep
> sense cannot be taught in culture classes.
>
> Culture can only be "taught" or transmitted if
> special efforts are made to incorporate into the
> school, its curriculum, its staff and activities
> as many aspects of possible of the life of the
> cultural group to which the learner belongs (p. 30,
> quoted in part in Aspira of New York, Inc. et al vs.
> Board of Education of the City of New York et al,
> p. 15).

Teachers as well as children can only learn in this way.

Three changes in staffing patterns can each contribute to
bringing the minority children's culture into the school. First,
parents and other community members can participate in all aspects
of the school program, including direct work with children. B. Cardenas
gives an example from the Edgewood School district in San Antonio:

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> A cultural responsiveness permeates the Edgewood
> project. You may not see the Aztec sign in every
> classroom, but you do see the relationship between
> child and teacher as a very culturally relevant
> thing. You do see a culturally oriented learning
> style being respected. You do see parents in the
> classroom, and parents are transmitters of culture
> (1972, p. 21).

John Stein and Osterreich (1975) give many examples of parent, grand-
parent and other community participation in Pueblo classrooms.

Second, there must be a plan for hiring and promoting school personnel
who are members of the children's cultural group. As the Cardeñas plan for
Denver says, "at least a portion of this staff must be reflective of the
characteristics of the minority child. Teachers who are members of minority
groups have the highest propensity for understanding and responding to the
characteristics of minority children" (J. Cardenas, 1974, p. 25). It can
be argued that this "propensity" may not be automatically reflected in
classroom performance. For instance, in the U.S. Commission on Civil
Rights study, the disparity between their praise and encouragement to
Anglos vs. Chicano students was greater for Spanish-surnamed teachers
than for Anglo teachers (Jacobson & Cosca, 1974, p. 225). But this was
in programs that didn't pretend to be either bilingual or bicultural, and
name alone is an imperfect indicator of cultural identification. Note that
here we are arguing for the hiring of minority group staff on grounds of
educational relevance. Such arguments are separate from, and in addition
to, other arguments on grounds of affirmative action.

Third, there must be inservice education. Staff development needs
will be different for teachers who are or are not members of the children's
culture. Our discussion is focused on the needs of Anglo staff. See the
Handbook for Staff Development Workshops in Indian Education (Center for

Applied Linguistics, 1976) for detailed suggestions for staff development of Native American personnel which could be adapted for other groups.

For Anglo teachers, inservice education must include first-hand experience in children's community and with the children's home culture, and the nature of that experienc₄ must be designed and implemented by some joint group of professional and community people. More than ten years ago, Landes (1965) describes an "anthropology and education program for training teachers" at Claremont Graduate School which was based on "knowing" as well as "knowing about":

> In the American schools, emphasis is laid primarily
> on words to represent all the reality comprehended by
> men: ideas, values, skills, creations, details of knowl-
> edge, teachers, and the beneficiaries of teaching - that
> is, the pupils and the community. But heavy use of this
> prime tool can fail educators in their goal of attuning
> instruction of actual processes of learning. This happens
> when educators talk more about pupils than with them and
> their families. Separateness from the objects of dis-
> cussion forfeit the experiences words should mirror
> (1965, p. 64).

This is not to say that "knowing about" is of no value; rather that it must be integrated with experiential forms of more direct "knowing" as well.

Such a requirement of direct experience is included in the Recommendations for the Implementation of the Guidelines for the Preparation and Certification of Teachers of BBE Through Inservice Training (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1974). They say, in part:

> That various 'cultural' activities or experiences
> be included as sessions in any inservice course...
>
> That teachers be involved in community affairs where
> they interact with persons of the 'other' cultures...
>
> That during inservice training teachers be provided
> with genuine experiences within the community, especially
> with minority groups of the same origin as the students.

> Opportunities for voluntary natural interaction
> in community activities are to be provided on an
> ongoing basis, with follow-up sessions for dis-
> cussion of observations and questions...

The most detailed plan to date for what a school system must do to

conform to the LAU decision is the Master Plan for BBE in San Francisco

developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) and the Citizen's

Task Force on Bilingual Education (1975). Part Four of that plan is on

Training Program Development. The modes of training described include

"Action Training" such as observation and community visitation, and

"Formal Training Types" such as workshops and seminars which include

explicit requirements for the participation of community members. One

sample module of training session development is given in detail (pp. 23-38).

The overall goal of the module is "To increase the competency of fifth grade

classroom staff to teach the interdisciplinary curriculum unit on 'Politeness

in language and society in the Phillipines and the U.S.' and to integrate

the unit into the total development of the child" (p. 32). Because this

training module is related to general cultural differences in interactional

styles as well as to specific curriculum content, it is included as Appendix II

of this paper. Note particularly the participation of community members

(e.g. 1 for every 15 participants for certain workshops) who provide for

the teacher participants both information and opportunities to practice

the appropriate verbal and nonverbal behavior. Griffin, one of the CAL

staff members who worked on the San Francisco plan, proposes a combination

of research, inservice education and curriculum development:

> If we take as given that the above three kinds of
> social factors sociology of language; ethnography
> of speaking and pragmatics need to be taken into
> account in consideration of language in a BBE program,

> how can it be done?...The answer seems to be to
> generate a subject area in the curriculum that is
> "bilingualism"...A cooperative effort by teachers,
> parents and researchers can prepare the course
> content during a unique type of adult education.
> Such an educational setting is about the only
> chance. That most of the adults will have ever
> had to experience the bilingual-bicultural
> learning that they plan for the children. (We
> at CAL were surprised that the San Franciscans
> had not considered that choice and combination
> of language in staff training and community
> meetings could be a matter of "practicing" what
> the program was "preaching" for the children
> (Griffin, 1976, pp. 20-21).

If reminder is needed about what happens when a well-intentioned
school administrator tries to do some inservice education on his own,
Picket at the Gates (Fuchs, 1966) reports a true story. A principal of
a school largely Black and Puerto Rican, who "had been reading a great
deal concerning the characteristics of children in depressed areas" (p. 6),
found out that he would have fifteen new white teachers in the fall. Hoping
to help them, he wrote a letter to the faculty, with a copy to the PTA
president, sharing his "facts" about the children and their families. As
we would now expect, the parents reacted strongly, demanding his removal.
Thus, symbolically at least, the "pickets at the gates."

This is a story from the mid-1960's, and we may feel sure we have
grown in cultural sensitivity in the intervening ten years. But we still
sorely need case studies of successful models of inservice bicultural
education. Our fourth and final recommendation is that in-service education
along these lines be required and case studies of successful models be
accumulated and widely distributed.

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Summary

The concept of culturally responsive education rests on fundamental concepts of the nature of culture and the nature of intelligence and is a very important part of the LAU Remedies. Four recommendations for research and educational policy to achieve culturally responsive education have been made:

1) Because children differ in sensory modality strength, and the learning of all children in BBE schools may be depressed in overly verbal environments, all such schools should deliberately plan more multisensory instruction.

2) Because the educational implications of differences in field dependence-independence have not yet been evaluated, this is an important topic for research.

3) Because classroom participation is an indicator of children's engagement and thereby of their learning, and also a valuable learning activity in itself in BBE programs, monitoring of that participation and subsequent planning for change where needed should immediately become part of formative evaluation procedures in all BBE schools. In a few communities, larger range field research projects should be supported in which an ethnographer works with staff and community members on a specific diagnosis of incompatibilities between the interactional styles of community and school, suggests directions for change and then helps to monitor the results.

4) All school systems should bring the invisible culture of the community into the school through parent participation, hiring and promotion of minority group personnel, and in-service training for the school staff. That inservice training should include both experiential and formal education components along the lines described in the Master Plan for San Francisco.

Case study descriptions of successful inservice programs should be accumulated and distributed widely.

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Appendix I

Presentation of the concept of a <u>set</u> in three sensory modalities
(from Bissell, White & Zivin, 1971, pp. 149-150.

For example, let us suppose that a teacher wants to teach the mathematical notion of a <u>set</u>. A verbal description of a set as a well-defined collection of objects might include a discussion of the idea of a set in its common, everyday usage, where it implies a recognition of some common property possessed by a group of objects. We speak of a set of dishes, a set of stamps, a set of books, and the like. Eliciting similar examples from students would be part of a verbal presentation of the notion of a set.

A visual description of the concept might include the following diagrammatic representation:

U A AB B
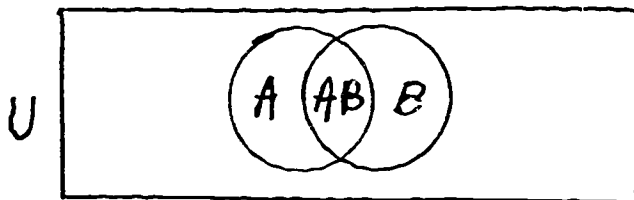
Here <u>U</u> is a geometric representation of the set of all children's books, <u>A</u> is the set of Mary's books, and <u>B</u> is the set of books belonging to Mary's brother, Tom. The area <u>AB</u> represents all the books shared by Mary and Tom, and is referred to as the <u>intersection</u> of sets <u>A</u> and <u>B</u>.

The kinesthetic modality might be more effective than the verbal or the visual modality for teaching the concept of a set to some children. Thus, each child might be given three shoelaces and asked to make a circle out of each one. He might also be given nine plane geometric shapes, of which three are triangles, three circles, and three squares. Each of the same-shaped figures is a different color, so that, for example, there is a red triangle, a green triangle, and a blue triangle. The children might then be asked to categorize the figures and place the different categories within the shoelace outlines. Let us assume that one child groups the objects into three categories, according to shape, having created a set of all triangles, a set of all circles, and a set of all squares. Another child might group the objects into categories on the basis of color, creating a set of all red shapes, one of all blue shapes, and one of all green shapes. This manipulating of objects in discovering mathematical concepts such as the notion of a set enables children to represent these concepts to themselves through actions. By teaching the concept of a set or any other concept with a multisensory approach, one is not only more likely to reach all the children in a class but also more likely to make each child's learning experience a richer thing.

Appendix 2
Sample Module of Training Session development
(From A Master Plan for Bilingual-Bicultural Education in the San Francisco
Unified School District prepared by the Center for Applied Linguistics and
Citizens' Task Force on Bilingual Education, 1975.)

2. | Sample Module of Training Session development following system.

*Refer to numbered flow chart, pages 24 to 26.

Input 1.

Objective Addressed: All instructional staff members will evidence

particular awareness of the curriculum section

specific to the level of their students and the

curriculum section their students will enter at

the next level.

(Objective C of Goal 3 of Unit 3 of Installment #4.)

Input 2.

Implementation plan indicates that all fifth grade BBE classroom staff

members dealing with Pilipino students will be aware that an inter-

disciplinary unit of the language arts and the social studies curricula

involves learning about and using the methods that Pilipino languages
and English use for polite requests among peers, and between status
different conversational partners.

Input 3.

All fifth grade classroom staff members must know

a. the function of politeness in both cultures.,

b. the language structures used for requesting in various
styles in both cultures,

c. the relevance of language usage lessons to BBE program
students in terms of language development, cognitive
development relative to social studies and affective
development relative to acceptance in bicultural settings,

d. the relevance of the language structures and the functional
cultural patterns to elements in the 6th grade curriculum,

e. methods for teaching language arts and social studies to
fifth grade students,

f. learning patterns of the Pilipino and other children in the
class as a function of culture and personality

g. methods to develop specific performance objectives for
ind_vid al students relevant to this element in the curriculum,

h. methods to develop unified lesson plans to accomplish these
activities,

i. methods to locate materials for assessing reliably student
performance and for re-exposing those students in need,

j. method to locate materials and personnel needed to accomplish
instruction.

The sequencing decisions reveal that

a. although all fifth grade classroom staff should have
   some competency in all ten areas eventually, at present
   the tasks can be divided among the personnel in each
   given fifth grade classroom

b. specific training sessions here should build on and review
   prior more general training sessions that involve competencies
   c, e, f, g, j, as listed above.

Procedure 13

The specific content for this training session should include:

a. An ethnographic presentation of the range of politeness and
   its relevance to other cultural aspects in both societies.

b. An overview of the special politeness particles, intonation
   contours and sentence structures used in the relevant Pilipino
   languages for (polite) requesting.

c. An overview of the special words, whimperative structures,
   modal verbs and sentence structures used in English for
   (polite) requesting.

d. An overview of the place of (b) and (c) in the language arts
   curriculum for both languages in grade 6.

e. Instruction in devising appropriate lesson plans, activities,
   and in using available materials.

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    f.   <u>Review</u> of <u>training sessions</u> relevant to competencies

         c, e, f, g, j above, in application to this element in the

         curriculum.

Procedure 14 - 21

·Participants shall be members of fifth grade instructional teams

    a.   who have <u>not before taught</u> this element in the curriculum.

    b.   and/or who have <u>encountered difficulty</u> with it.

    c.   and/or who show a <u>need</u> for more exposure to <u>linguistic and</u>

         <u>ethnographic</u> information about the Pilipino or American

         English systems.

    d.   and/or who evidence <u>lack of understanding of</u> the <u>relation</u>

         of language arts and social study curriculum parts to the

         sequential development of the students.

    e.   and/or who evidence <u>difficulty</u> in <u>planning and implementing</u>

         lessons and assessment of students.

    f.   and who are <u>competent</u> in the <u>language of instruction</u> used for

         the training session.

    g.   and/or for whom <u>language support</u> can be provided.

    h.   and who have <u>attained</u> criterion level at <u>competencies</u> c,e,f,g,j

         as listed in Input 3, above.

·Arrangements are made to provide the participant teachers with compensatory

time and/or credits and/or other motivational incentives for participating.

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Procedure 22 - 24

'The mode of training:

   a. Lecture and discussions on ethnographic and linguistic material.

   b. Workshop I with community participation to consider specific instances of use of polite requests in both cultures.

   c. Workshop II for devising lesson plans, activities, and materials.

   d. Lecture and discussion relating this material to rest of curriculum and to other competencies of instructional staff.

   e. Follow-up supervisory support for implementation of plans in classroom and for extension to other elements in curriculum.

'Time span: 1 month, excepting long-term assessment and support.

'Participant time required: 15 hours.

Procedure A1 - 10

'Training session resources

   'BBE program staff and outside consultants to training staff for pre-training activities and for implementing and evaluating, including:

      a) an ethnographer

      b) a linguist

      c) community members (1 from each community for every 15 participants).

'An *institution* who can *supply* an ethnographer, a linguist, and
community members, and the *capability to train* in the areas
noted negotiates a contract to *work with* the BBE training staff
to be fully *responsible for* developing and implementing a and b
in Procedure 22 - 24 and to be *participants in developing*
c, d, e therein.

Procedure A - 11 to End:

'The *training team* will

    a. devise specific *goals* and *objectives*.

    b. develop the necessary *specific information* (including those
        based on site observations), and

    c. engage in *pre-training* activities and *training activities*.

'The work of the *outside resources* will include:

    a. *Preparing* the ethnographic and linguistic *materials* including
        sufficient attention to the varieties of the Pilipino and
        American culture and language in San Francisco.

    b. *Preparing* the *consultants* who will be on site at the training
        session (the ethnographer, the linguist, the community members)
        to communicate successfully with the staff member participants.

    c. *Assisting* the BBE program staff to develop the application
        workshop (II) and the final lecture-discussion (c and d in
        Procedure 22 - 24, above).

    d. *Developing* a system for language arts and social studies super-
        visory personnel to use for *follow-up* support.

e. Developing the systems for assessment and evaluation.

Sample of the goals, objectives, implementation plan, and evaluation of the session.

Overall goal: To increase the competency of fifth grade classroom staff to teach the interdisciplinary curriculum unit on "Politeness in language and society in the Philippines and the U.S." and to integrate the unit into the total development of the child.

Objectives: Activity (a) and (c) in Procedure 22 - 24 above.

a. The participants will understand politeness as a part of the cultural system of the Philippines.

b. The participants will understand politeness as a part of the cultural system of the United States.

c. The participants will understand the similarities and differences regarding politeness between the two cultural systems.

d. The participants will understand how an action is evaluated as polite or impolite in each cultural system.

e. The participants will understand what situations call for what degrees of politeness in each cultural systems.

f. The participants will understand the short and long term effect of polite and impolite actions in each culture.

g. The participants will understand the enculturating process relevant to politeness that operates on new members of each cultural system.

h.   The participants will understand the surface behavior of
politeness in classroom settings in each culture.

i.   The participants will understand the potential points
of conflict due to cultural differences in politeness
systems between the two cultures.

Objectives: Activity b and c of Procedure 22 - 24 above.

a.   The participants will understand the speech act of
requesting and its relation to questions and commands.

b.   The participants will understand the structure of sentences
used for making requests in the relevant Pilipino languages.

c.   The participants will understand the function words and
particles related to requesting, and those which serve to
mitigate the force of a sentence, in the relevant Pilipino
languages.

d.   The participants will understand the use of differing vocative
expressions in requests in the relevant Pilipino languages.

e.   The participants will understand the use of differing intonation
contours in making requests in the relevant Pilipino languages.

f.   The participants will understand the distribution of allowable
and polite responses to requests in the relevant Pilipino
languages.

g.   The participants will understand the distribution of requesting
in relation to the allowed content of the proposition in the
request in the relevant Pilipino languages.

h.   The participants will understand the distribution of the
variety in request forms in terms of the participants and
setting of the speech occasion in the cultural setting of the
relevant Pilipino languages.

i - o. Similar objectives regarding the structure, distribution
and use cf the American English forms used in requesting,
including modal verbs, question - imperative forms, the polite-
ness particle, and the varying intonation contours.

Objectives: Activity c of Procedure 22 - 24 above.

a. The participants will interact with members of each culture
to practice polite request forms and responses in English
and in the relevant Pilipino languages.

b. The participants will interact with members of each culture
to identify appropriate and inappropriate elements in
situations involving requests and responses.

c. The participants will interact with members of each culture
to identify and practice the non-verbal behavior appropriate
to request and response forms.

Implementing: Activity a of Procedures 22 - 24 above.

Staff: 1 lecturer, 2 other discussion leaders, all being
ethnographers who specialize in cultural systems in
the Philippines.

Participants: 30 Fifth grade classroom staff members, per
meeting.(Supervisory personnel from language arts
and social studies may also be included).
Including:

(a) Master Teachers

(b) Experienced bilingual teachers

(c) Interns

(d) Aides

(e) Tutors

Events: (1) Lecture - Presentation of ethnographic study results

concerning politeness in the Philippine and

American cultural systems, covering the

points in the objectives above. Audio

visual aids will be utilized.

(2) Discussion groups for questioning and explanation in

three small groups.

Time: 3 hours - 1 released Monday afternoon

1 1/2 hour lecture

1 1/2 hour discussion

Implementing: Activity b of Procedures 22 - 24 above.

Staff: 1 lecturer, 2 other discussion leaders, all applied

linguists specializing in language systems of the Philippines

and the U.S.

Participants: Same

Events: (1) Lecture - Presentation of request forms and responses

in the relevant Pilipino languages and in

American English.

(2) Small groups of 10 discussing data in both languages

and recognizing appropriate and inappropriate usage.

Time: 3 hours - 1 released Wednesday afternoon

1 hour lecture

2 hours small group

Implementing: Activity - c of Procedures 22 - 24 above.

Staff: 2 community members highly aware of American English

language and culture.

2 community members highly aware of Pilipino languages and culture.

Participants: Same, divided into two groups.

Event: Fifteen participants and two consultants, one from each background, will

    a.   view video tape clips

    b.   identify polite and impolite actions

    c.   predict conflict situations

    d.   suggest avoidance and repair strategies

    e.   practice polite requests and responses in both languages

    f.   focus on politeness in classroom setting and request forms common in teacher-student interactions.

Event 2:   Test on facts and on applying facts to situations.

Time: 3 hours Saturday A.M.

    2 1/2 hours group

    1/2 hour paper and pencil test

Evaluation: Activity a,b,c of Procedures 22 - 24 above.

1. Short term: The training session will be considered successful if

    a.   80% of the participants will be assessed as competent on check list of objectives by discussion leaders in Activity a.

    b.   80% of the participants will be assessed as competent on check list of objectives by discussion leaders in Activity b.

    c.   80% of the participants will be assessed as competent on check list of objectives by discussion leaders in Activity c.

    d. 80% of the participants will score over 70% correct

on the factual information quiz administered at the

end of Activity c.

    e. 80% of the participants will score over 85% correct

on the situation assessment quiz administered at the

end of Activity c.

2. Long Term: The training session will be considered successful if

    a. 80% of the participants will produce adequate lesson

plans on this subject matter during Activity d, below.

    b. 70% of the participants will effectively request

community assistance in planning and devising materials

for the lesson, as determined by supervisor follow-up.

    c. 70% of the participants will be rated as effectively

teaching the unit during the school year by their

supervisors.

    d. 80% of the students of the participants will display

competency of 80% of the performance objective for

students relative to this material.

    e. 70% of participants will get 65% correct on 6 mo.

post test.

3. Survey evaluations:

    a. Training staff members will report self-assessment

of success and failures of training program activities.

    b. Participants will report evaluation of training on

a questionnaire at termination of training.

    c. Participants will rank activities a, b, and c, of

this training session in relation to others offered

by BBE, SFUSD and others they have participated
in, along 20 dimensions specified by the BBE
training staff on a questionnaire administered
six months after the termination of the training
session.

Activity d.   will be a methods and materials workshop which will
be held for participants of the above activities as
well as participants of four similar training sessions
related to implementing the curriculum. The participant
total will be 150 divided into 10 small work groups,
two of which will deal specifically with this material.

Activity e.   will be a lecture - discussion session for the same
150 participants reviewing and integrating the material
into the overall curriculum objective.

Activities d and e will have specific goals and objectives and implementation,
and evaluation plans similar to those developed for Activities a,b,c above.

`The BBE program planning and development activities will utilize the
assessment and evaluation materials from all of the above activities to
evaluate the program and revise development plans where necessary.

`The BBE program staff will evaluate the outside and inside training resource
effectiveness and use the evaluation in future decisions about training
sessions.